18

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS

TO

TWENTIETH ANNUAL SESSION

OF THE

Homœopathic College of Penna.

BY

W. L. ARROWSMITH, M. D.

PHILADELPHIA:
KING & BAIRD, PRINTERS, 607 SANSOM STREET.
1867.

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS

TO

TWENTIETH ANNUAL SESSION

OF THE

HOMŒOPATHIC COLLEGE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

GENTLEMEN:—I have been desired by my Colleagues to address a few words of welcome to you, on this the first day of the session of the years 1867-68 of the Homœopathic Medical College of Pennsylvania. It affords me much pleasure in so doing, and in expressing the hope which we all share, that your labors in this college will be productive of the advantages which you anticipate. No efforts will be wanting on the part of this faculty to lead, instruct, and help you forward, in the knowledge and practice of the profession, and on the path which you have chosen, and which we all conscientiously believe to be the only true path by which success in the art of healing the sick can be attained. The Homœopathic Medical College of Pennsylvania was founded in the year 1849, but was re-constituted in the year 1864. In this charter was included the privilege of conferring the Degree of Doctor of Medicine, and especially of Homœopathic Medicine, and this I believe to be the only charter of the kind granted to any college. The utility of this Institution is

best seen by the numbers, constantly increasing, of its graduates, and by the progress made in this republic of the Homœopathic doctrine, a progress much greater than in any other country in the world, of equal population. When we consider that the law of cure, and the practice of Homœopathy, appeal to the intelligence of a people, and are in direct opposition to their customs, prejudices, and previous knowledge,—customs and prejudices sanctioned by the authority of schools of medicine of all nations,—we shall be surprised and gratified at the success of the efforts that have been made. It proves the more general intelligence and education of the inhabitants of this country; for I think that the progress of Homœopathy in different nations may be stated to be in proportion to the intelligence, and particularly the spread of education, among the people. Thus, the United States with its 3,637 practitioners takes the first rank, Germany next (and there education is compulsory), after which England and France—Spain being the lowest on the list. Now to retain the esteem of the public, and to promote the spread of our doctrine, it is absolutely essential that the education and scientific attainments of our practitioners should keep pace with the march of improvement in other arts and sciences. The list of graduates of this college, published in the annual announcement, will be found to contain names of celebrity in various collateral sciences, and in the intelligent practice of Homœopathy. I trust that you will endeavor to emulate their example.

In order to arrive at the more advanced stages of the knowledge of surgery and medicine, it is essential to commence with the study of anatomy. The object of anatomy, taking it in its most extended meaning, is to ascertain and define the structure of organized bodies. The science is therefore separated into three divisions. The investigation of the structure of plants is termed vegetable anatomy; that of animals is called comparative anatomy, while that of man is termed human anatomy. It is with the latter that we are principally concerned.

On examining the structure of an organized body, you will observe, that it is made up of members or organs, through means of which its functions are performed. Such are the root, stem and leaves of a plant, and the heart, stomach and limbs of an animal. You will further find that these organs consist of certain tissues, as the cellular and vascular tissues of the vegetable, or the osseous, muscular, vascular and others which form the animal organs. Now, most of these tissues are found in more than one organ; some indeed in nearly all; so that a great number of organs are constructed out of a small number of constituent tissues, just as, in language, many different words are made by the varied combinations of a few letters. So that, many parts of the body, differing very much in their functions, may be found to consist of the same constituent materials; and as these textures or tissues possess the same essential characters, in whatever part of the organism they may be found, it is clear that the formation and properties of each tissue may be made the object of study, apart from the organs into whose structure it enters.

These considerations naturally point out a two-fold line of study and research, and have led in all schools of medicine to the sub-division of human anatomy into two branches. The first is called histology or general anatomy, and treats of the nature and general properties of the component textures of the body; and the second, which is called descriptive anatomy, treats of the several organs, members, and regions, and also describes the outward form and the internal structure of the parts, their relative situations, and mutual connection, and the successive conditions which they present in the progress of their formation and development.

Of all the natural sciences experience suggests that anatomy is the most difficult to learn, and the most easy to forget. Man never forgets the arrangement of an apartment which he has inhabited, or the scenes of his childhood; not only does he remember the general aspect but also the particular trees, the forms of their branches, and their varieties of genus. These things are so fixed in the memory, that, even

in old age, a man is able to describe the scenes and places where his infancy and youth were passed. How is it, then, that with such powers, the recollection of anatomical description should be so difficult? Because, to engrave upon the memory, it is necessary that the object to be remembered be seen long and often—whereas the objects of anatomical research are seen but for a short time. The most celebrated anatomists agree, that to acquire a perfect knowledge of the human body, the muscles should be seen in their respective situations, the viscera in the grand cavities of the body, and that the vessels and nerves should be demonstrated with all their connections and traced to their origin and terminations.

The difficulty of arriving at this knowledge from actual dissection alone, has led to the idea of imitating the human frame and organs piece by piece. This has been done by Doctor Cazeaux, of Paris, who exhibited in the Exposition Universelle of 1867 several models of artificial anatomy. These models have received the fullest approbation of the faculty of Paris, and are exact in the most minute details. I had, this spring, an opportunity personally of comparing one of these with a cadaver under dissection. One of these complete models has been acquired by this college, also a complete model of the Bassin de Femme. These will be constantly under your observation, subject to the necessary regulations.

The advantages of the models in learning anatomy are, that all the organs and members can be isolated, and considered in all their phases, and with all their connections. The distribution of the nerves and blood-vessels, the disposition of the membranes which serve to envelop them, can be studied, while the principal vascular trunks can be opened in various points of their extension, and the interior viewed. By these means anatomy may be studied in all places, all seasons, and in all countries. These preparations are not easily destroyed. One can see again what has been seen before, and can fix the attention for a long time and as often as may be necessary upon the various details, and so engrave them upon the memory.

I cannot too strongly recommend to you the closest attention and industry in this branch of study. If sufficiently conversant with the anatomy of the human body, diagnosis will be an affair of judgment, and not of memory; you will not be exposed to the error of mistaking one malady for another, as, for instance, in the fracture of a bone, it will be enough to recall to your mind, the attachment of the muscles, the direction in which the superior and inferior fragments are drawn, and the deviations which are found in a member. If the anatomical details of the organ are remembered, you will not confound a luxation with a fracture, a crural with an inguinal hernia, nor an aneurism with an abscess; while for the diagnosis of internal maladies, your attention will be called to the painful region, and remembering the functions with which each part is charged, you will be able to estimate the differences of form, volume, and position, and not hesitate in deciding upon the organ which is principally affected. We no longer live in the times of ignorance, when it was pretended that anatomy was useless in the exercise of medicine, and that it should be given over exclusively to the study of the surgeon. While we know the help which it affords and the light which it throws upon the malady, the public are little less on the alert, and public estimation and reputation follow the student who possesses the most extended knowledge of this science.

Your attention will also be directed to the study of physiology. It has become my duty to explain to you the phenomena presented by this science. General physiology is the science which treats of the properties, actions, and forces of organic bodies, animal and vegetable.

Inorganic substances are the subjects of other sciences, physics and chemistry. In entering upon the study of physiology, the first point to claim your attention will be the distinction between these two great classes of bodies—the organic and inorganic—and the following questions will suggest themselves for study: Do organic or inorganic substances differ in their material composition; and, since the

phenomena presented by these two classes are obviously so different, are the forces or principles on which they depend also different? Now, nothing analogous to sensation, nutrition, or generation, is found in inorganic bodies, and yet the matter which composes organic bodies consists of precisely the same elements; but the mode in which the ultimate elements are combined in organic bodies, as well as the energies by which the combination is effected are peculiar, for although organic bodies may by analysis be reduced to their ultimate elements, they cannot be regenerated by any chemical process. These energies are due to the exercise of a force usually denominated the Vital Force.

Physiology has regard to the laws of life of the human body in the state of health; and the study of the phenomena of life, as manifested in the human body and in those of all animals, will be arranged in two principal classes—the first comprehending those which are observed in various degrees of perfection and variously modified in both vegetables and animals; and the second class those which are peculiar to the members of the animal kingdom.

Your attention will be called to both these classes. The study of the first will include the processes of digestion, absorption, secretion, excretion, circulation, and respiration, which, together with the functions of some parts not yet well understood, fulfil their purpose in the formation, movement, and purification of the blood; second, the processes of growth and nutrition or nutritive assimilation, by which the several parts and tissues of the body, obtaining their materials from the blood, repair the loss and waste to which they are subject in the discharge of their functions, or through natural impairment and decay; and third, the generative processes for the formation, impregnation, and development of the ovum. Now, these are named processes, functions or phenomena of organic or vegetable life. Those of the first two divisions maintain the existence of the individual being; the third maintains that of the species.

The second class of phenomena to which your attention

will be directed, will include the functions of sensation and voluntary motion. These are the functions by which the mind of an animal acquires knowledge of things external to itself, and is enabled to act upon them. These are called the phenomena of animal life.

But the division of the phenomena of life into these or any similar classes is purely artificial, and must not be understood to indicate difference or dissociation. The organic and animal life are knitted closely together, and are mutually dependent. Neither of them can be long maintained without the other, and as all the processes of organic life are essential to the maintenance of the organs of animal life, so, in an equal degree, the sensation and voluntary motion of animal life are essential to the taking of food, the discharge of excretions and other processes of organic life, by which the animal and also the species are maintained. We must not, then, in description, abuse the value of words, nor ever forget that the phenomena of life are tied together by necessary connections, and which cannot be grouped or classed but in an approximate manner. We must, then, study them together and in their reciprocal conditions. The functions of life are only isolated in books. In concluding my introductory remarks on this subject, I will briefly notice the modification of what is commonly called the Cell doctrine, which has recently taken place in Europe, from the concurrence of results obtained by different observers, laboring independently of each other. It now appears to be established with certainty, that the cell, with its membranous wall, muscles and contents, is no longer to be considered as the primitive type of organization; but that the nearest approach to this type is to be found in the protoplasmic substance or sarcode, or germinal matter (for by these three names it is variously described) which has been discovered to form the entire body of the lowest animals. And again, that the portion of the fabric of even the highest animals which is most actively concerned in nutrition is a protoplasmic substance, diffused through every part, its segments being sometimes in con-

tinuous connection with each other, sometimes isolated by the formation of cell-walls around them.

The study of the sister science of psychology will throw light upon many of the phenomena of animal life. These sciences touch each other in more than one point, and the limits which separate them are not accurately fixed. It is in the rational soul itself that we shall find the *primum movens* of organization; that it is the ultimate and sole cause of organic activity; that the soul constructs conformably to design, and preserves its body in accordance with the laws of its operation; and that by its organic activity the cure of diseases by the Homœopathic theory is effected. Hahnemann, with noteworthy prescience, was "*en rapport*" with the latest facts in the sciences we are considering, when he stated, in his introductory remarks upon the use of Aconite, that the moral symptoms of this medicine must be in accordance with those of the patient.

In the practice of the art of healing by the Homœopathic method in this vast republic, there are many districts in which the knowledge of surgery will prove of the highest importance to the general practitioner. Surgery is that branch of the art of healing which comprises, first, the cure of injuries either mechanical or otherwise. Second, malformations and deformities, when these cannot be cured by other curative means. Upon this point, your attention will be called, by the learned Professor who fills the chair of surgery, to the modifications which may be induced in these cases by the well-directed action of the muscular system. Doctor Marshall Hall's doctrine of the reflex action of the cerebro-spinal system may thus be brought into practical use. And thirdly, surgery may be required in diseases affecting the organs of sense, of locomotion, and of reproduction, although there is no doubt—and my recent visit to the Hospitals of London and Paris left this impression on my mind—that much of the surgical treatment of modern Allopathic practice is due to the ignorance of the curative powers of Homœopathic medicine. And lastly, surgery is necessary in those diseases which are

incurable without manual, mechanical, or operative means of relief. It will be the object of your studies in this direction, not alone to master the diagnosis of such diseases, or the dexterous application of the knife or other operative means, but to form your minds to a complete acquaintance with the conditions and the medical knowledge of the Homœopathic remedies which may help the restoration of the patient to a state of health. Operative dexterity must not be confounded with professional skill; and, necessary as it may possibly be on the field of battle to remove a limb in so many minutes, it is of much more importance to you to become successful surgeons. Care and foresight are qualities equally as necessary to the life and well-doing of the patient as operative dexterity; for your success, in fact, will depend on the cures made, and not on the number of the minutes occupied in the operation. I had very lately the opportunity of witnessing the operation of lithotomy by Doctor Civiali, at the Hospital Necker at Paris. It was completed in a very short time. Afterwards, on seeing the operation of lithotrity performed by Mr. Paget, at Bartholomew's Hospital, London, I mentioned the operation I had witnessed in Paris, expressing my gratification at the dexterity of the operator. Mr. Paget replied: "That may be; but they lose more patients after the operation than we do." Results, therefore, are the test of success in surgery.

Pathology will also engage your attention. Great progress has recently been made in this department of medical science. Chemistry has done much for this advancement, but has hitherto failed to distinguish, by the most minute analysis, the blood of a cancerous patient from healthy blood. While admitting the claims of the sister science, we shall find that it teaches us nothing respecting the life of the blood; but when looking at the blood from the pathological point of view, we must remember that much must depend upon those agencies which affect its preparation in a direct or indirect manner. These agencies may undergo various modifications, without any serious transgression of the limits of health. It

is therefore difficult, in a pathological view, to determine whether we have to do with blood simply modified within the limits of health by special circumstances, or blood in a pathological sense. The simple physical changes of the blood in themselves are not sufficient to enable us to decide upon the morbid condition, because a multitude of circumstances may induce them. The pathological conditions of the blood which will call for study, and which are usually denominated crases, are: 1st. The increase of fibrin. This has been erroneously stated to be a primary lesion of the blood, but later inquiries have shown that it is rather the effect of inflammation than the cause of it. 2d, Increase of albumen in the blood. 3d, Increase of the aqueous contents of the blood. 4th, An increase of the white corpuscles of the blood. 5th, An increase of the amount of fat in the blood. 6th, A diminution in the quantity of red corpuscles of the blood; this is the state observed in chlorosis. 7th, Increase of the coloring matter of the bile in the blood. 8th, Increase of sugar in the blood; a state which occurs in diabetes mellitus. It is too much the practice of the old school of medicine to consider these pathological conditions, as primary causes of disease; hence the catalogue of blood purifiers, &c. But it is not demonstrated that these conditions of the blood are idiopathic: the proofs are quite the other way, and these crases of the blood may be looked upon as the effects of disease. This is in strict harmony with the Homœopathic principle of cure.

The next pathological condition to which your attention will be directed, by the learned Professor who so ably fills this chair, is the changes which occur in the normal cells. The cells may be looked upon as organs consisting essentially of a cell membrane and its contents; these constitute the true parenchyma. The modifications which may take place in these, arising from a deficiency of supply of the nutritive material, or from other causes, will be brought before you. If we desire, however, to resolve the life of the organism into its elements, it will be necessary to acquire an inti-

mate acquaintance with the vital properties of the cells. We must endeavor to ascertain how the first appearance of the cells in the homogeneous blastema is evidenced, how their multiplication by division proceeds, what changes or metamorphoses they undergo, what are the conditions presented in the cells in their future existence, whether they remain stationary in their external habits or not, what are the stages of development, and whether mobile phenomena occur in them. In short, we must strive to comprehend the cells as something living, in their nutrition, propagation, and movement. This vital survey must be carried on from the pathological point of view; it is not enough to confine our inquiries to that which is presented in the dead subject.

Just as the organism as an individual whole requires pabulum for its maintenance, nutrition, propagation, and motion; just as, when it reaches a certain point of development it remains stationary, and, as a body, takes on no further development of its vital properties, but begins gradually to retrograde until the sum of its vital phenomena is reduced to a smaller quantity, gradually diminishes and ultimately disappears, which event we term the death of the body or organism; so is it on a small scale with the cell.

But there is a possibility of a defective nutrition of the cell; also of the opposite condition; or, in other words, of atrophy in the cell in the one case, and hypertrophy in the other—pathological conditions which are of the greatest importance. It is to the cells, also, you must look as constituting the basis of the tissue of all pathological new formations. Hence the value of this study in the diagnosis of tumors and cancers, in tuberculosis, in suppuration, and the phenomena of inflammation, in the process of the repair of injuries, wounds, and fractures, and in many others.

While in Paris, in the month of April of this year, I had an opportunity of seeing the pathological preparations of Dr. Brunetti, of Padua. These preparations are conserved by a process invented by the doctor, and are indispensable to the study of some maladies of rare occurrence. In these speci-

mens of the various tissues of the body, the anatomical and pathological characters are preserved with a surprising accuracy—with the exception of color and weight, for the color is gray and the lightness extreme from the absence of all fluids. The solid parts remain intact as they existed; all the vessels, large and small, and the capillaries, are conserved in the state of dilatation which was natural to them, but all empty and accessible to the observation of the student. Specimens of these preparations have been acquired by this college, and will be made the objects of demonstration, first of the normal state of the kidneys, lungs, &c., and then the changes which take place in these and other tissues, from alterations in their pathological conditions. By no other means can you so well study changes of structure as in those afforded by Dr. Brunetti's preparations, and I believe that the specimens obtained by this college are the only ones at present on this continent.

Having thus briefly noticed the foregoing subjects in your collegiate course, I will now advert to the study of diagnosis. This is the science of signs or symptoms, by which one disease is distinguished from another. The Homœopathic diagnosis of disease may be classed under three heads: 1st. The history; 2d, The symptoms; and 3d, The morbid anatomy or changes in structure. Now, a careful study of the history of a disease will greatly help the subsequent consideration of the symptoms—the constitutional causes,—hereditary predisposition, the occurrence of previous attacks of a like nature. Then the external causes which may induce or modify the disease, the duration, and, if previous attacks had been experienced, then the past course of these. Such considerations will greatly assist in determining the particular condition of the organ principally affected, and of the system in the individual case before us. But, secondly, it is in the symptoms that we shall find the chief sources of our diagnosis. The form and violence of these—the particular order in which they appear—the particular manner in which they are connected and associated; these I repeat, will be found to be leading character-

istics of our diagnosis. In this study, confided as it has been to such able hands, you will be taught to refrain from the errors of the Allopathic school, who may be said, in most cases, to regulate their practice on insufficient evidence, and thus may be fairly reproached with vacillation and uncertainty; and your attention will be directed to every circumstance and every symptom which can possibly become the subject of observation, and which, if at all characteristic, must be considered by you of importance.

How often may one find on carefully examining the countenance, and even the attitude of patients, sources of information too often neglected. Hippocrates, Celsus, and other ancient writers on the art of healing, have in their great attention to the study of the symptoms, paid particular regard to the appearances of the countenance And this is so; for in the human face may be read, as in a book, the kind of disease, the stage, the changes, the mitigation, and the progress of the patient whether towards recovery or death. I mention this subject, because in the Allopathic schools the study of the countenance is almost overlooked. But when we recall to mind, the varied and distinctive appearances in the different kinds and stages of fever, in affections of the head, thorax and heart, in inflammation of the abdomen, and in colic and affections characterized by spasmodic pain, in icterus, in chlorosis, in scirrhus, and in that range of affections which originate in imperfect digestion,—it is impossible we should not be impressed with the importance of the changes in the countenance. It is this faculty which some experienced men have acquired which has given rise to the saying so frequently heard among the sick poor—that he could tell what was the matter by merely looking at the patient.

Hippocrates and Celsus also particularly noticed the attitude of patients. Now, the attitude in certain diseases is so remarkable as to challenge observation; yet in ordinary diagnosis this point has been too little noticed, and its indications too little explored. Reverting to the symptoms, we must not be deterred by the cry which may frequently be heard, that

Homœopathic physicians are mere symptom-mongers. We must not be deterred by irony from doing what is necessary for the recognition of the disease, and of the remedy which is appropriate for its treatment. It will be necessary, therefore, to make each particular symptom the subject of distinct inquiry, to recognize it in general, and to be able to distinguish each modification and peculiarity of it in particular. Now, dyspnœa is observed as a symptom of inflammation, also of hydrothorax, and of asthma; but how widely different is the dyspnœa of inflammation from that of asthma, and how different the difficulty of breathing in asthma from that of hydrothorax. You will perceive how desirable it is to know these distinctions, and to make the knowledge applicable to the cure of disease. The pulse will also afford you information of morbid affections of the circulation, and it is also an important diagnostic mark of disorders of function from organic diseases, and of different organic diseases from each other. The older writers have written much upon this subject, but until the recent invention of the sphygmograph by Bruger, of Paris, no accurate scientific results could be obtained. I saw this instrument in constant use this spring, at the hospital of Saint Antoine, Paris, and the exact information obtained by its means was very surprising. This instrument not only serves to distinguish the disease, but also takes a written record or diagram of the pulse, and these records may be compared from day to day. One of these instruments has been acquired by this college. Some symptoms may be considered as real diseases, others again are signs. You will also be taught to consider the combination of symptoms, and the influence of one in modifying or aggravating the others. Hence our doctrine of amelioration and aggravation. These have to be accurately observed as characteristic of certain affections and stages of disease. In your examination of the sick you will be frequently surprised by incompatible symptoms. Hence a spontaneous sigh may decide whether the pain in the side of the patient is inflammatory or not, and in the same manner writhing of the body is unusual if not incompatible with in-

flammation. Accurately, therefore, to find out, note and discriminate the symptoms in each case individually, is the duty of the Homœopathic physician, and the practice of our school offers to you one great advantage. It is, that our knowledge is exactly communicable to others. It was long ago remarked and regretted by an Allopathic author, that the practical knowledge of Allopathic medicine was peculiar in this respect, that it cannot be taught, and that the precious fruits of experience necessarily die with their possessors. How true this remark is, will be acknowledged universally. With us, on the contrary, the experience and knowledge of Hahnemann is handed down to us with the greatest exactness, and if we adhere to his teachings we shall be as successful in our cures. And, thirdly, by the morbid anatomy of the parts, I mean those changes of structure which take place in diseased organs. It is by the investigations of morbid anatomy that we are principally enabled to establish correct species of discase, but it is equally true that all the advantages which we derive from our knowledge of changes of structure must flow through that of the history and symptoms as the channel to our individual patients. The most perfect knowledge of morbid anatomy will not teach you to cure your patients, unless you are enabled by the symptoms to ascertain its existence in the living body.

The study of obstetrics and of the diseases of females and children, directed as it will be by the skilful and eminent Professor who fills this chair, cannot fail to prove useful to you. You will soon learn the advantages which the Homœopathic practice offers above all others, in producing safe and natural labors. Were these advantages fully known by the community, it would be difficult to imagine how any woman about to become a mother could resort to old school practices and dangers. In no country with which I am acquainted, is woman held in so much honor as in this. The high regard and estimation for the female partner of life, has led as a consequence to a consistent regard for the obstetric art, but not to a higher one than I believe is justly its due. The

health of woman in all that relates particularly to her sex, has claimed the study of the highest intellects which have been known in the annals of medicine, and it is to the act of parturition that this study has been principally directed. At no period of the life of the female, excepting in this, can it be said, that the lives of two human beings are so closely connected. The worthy and skilful exercise of this branch of the science of medicine is of the greatest importance to the young practitioner. I therefore recommend your unremitting attention to the efforts of the Professor for your benefit.

In the old school of medicine there are two varieties of practice—one which in difficult cases gives a preference to the life of the mother, and the other which holds that the life of the child is of the most importance. The former opinion is held in England, the latter appears to obtain on the Continent. Now without ascribing these differences to religion, as has recently been done, I think there is no doubt of the fact practically, that in some of the countries of Europe the life of the child is held of the most importance. We may observe this in the preference shown for the Cesarean operation, the too frequent use of the long forceps, and formerly to the Segaultean operation, and to the dislike to the performance of craniotomy under any circumstances. In England, on the contrary, the preference is given to the mother, in the timely performance of craniotomy, as though the child were already dead, in those cases where the life of the mother is in imminent danger, and in the general acceptance of the principle that where the pelvis is greatly deformed premature labor may be induced. Of course, in all those cases where it is possible to save both lives, these considerations can have no weight; but where the interest of the mother and offspring clash, and to save both is sometimes impossible, I trust that the teachings of my honored colleague will not be lost, and that your preference will always be given to the mother. Allopathic practice on this Continent, if I am correctly informed, leans to the continental bias; but it is not so with

Homœopathic practice, which, more beneficent, seeks by the appropriate remedy to obviate the necessity for operations, but when these are inevitable, never raises the life of a fœtus to an equality with the life of the mother.

The act of parturition has, until recently, been considered as a mechanical act; but this will not explain the whole of the phenomena. More recent investigations, however, have elucidated the importance of the reflex physiology of parturition. By reflex action is meant, the connection of the uterus with the spinal marrow, and its special incident excitor and reflex motor nerves. It is through this connection and by nervi-motor action that the therapeutics of Homœopathy are enabled to act in so marvellous a manner upon the mechanical operations of the uterus, and give to us the advantage, so long desired by the older writers on this subject, of suppressing the action of the uterus when premature, exciting it to energy when too feeble, moderating it when too violent, and regulating it in a variety of ways conducive to the welfare of our patients. When you compare the results of Homœopathic practice in this, the corner-stone of the healing art, with Allopathic uncertainty and vacillation, the striking superiority of the one to the other will be manifest. Without law or order, they are content to act empirically in the difficulties which so frequently arise. They give enemas both before and after parturition, without foreseeing the excitement which they must occasion. Another important agent is temperature. This they apply without any reference to principle, or the physiological action of the organ. They give large doses of the ergot without any knowledge of its action, but with constant injury to patient and child. Again, the Allopathic use of opium is an enigma, and they have, after two thousand years, not yet determined whether it acts as an excitant or as a sedative of uterine action. If they wish to turn, they will give opium to promote relaxation; the same practitioner will prescribe opium in hemorrhage with inertia, this time to promote contraction. Again, they will bleed to produce inertia, and yet one of the most fatal results of inertia after

parturition is loss of blood. One author will inform you that bleeding is the principal remedy for puerperal convulsions, and another that loss of blood is the principal cause of these convulsions.

As you advance further in the study of the Homœopathic therapeutics of parturition you will become astonished and convinced of the efficient action of the medicines in modifying the derangements of motor actions, which may occur during labor. Under our treatment preternatural presentations, which are caused by disturbance or derangements of motor actions, are almost entirely superseded or prevented. Hence, operative instrumental assistance is comparatively of less importance; and on this point I am of the opinion of William Hunter and Denman, who both expressed their doubts, balancing the good and evil, and looking to the prevalence of merely mechanical ideas, whether, up to their times, it would not have been happier for the world if instruments had never been introduced into the practice of obstetricy. And lastly, gentlemen, there remains to be noticed the study of therapeutics. Therapeutics is that branch of medicine which relates to the discovery and application of remedies for the cure of disease. There are three principles which distinguish the art of healing by Homœopathic remedies. They are 1st. The law of the similars, that is, that like should be given to like, or similia similibus curantur; second, the single remedy; and third, the minimum dose.

Accumulating experiences, acquired in the arts and sciences, have been gradually producing in the human mind an ever-increasing conviction of the universal presence of law. From generation to generation, science has been occupied in proving uniformities of relation among phenomena which were once believed either accidental or supernatural in their origin, and has been showing and demonstrating a constant order and causation where ignorance had assumed irregularity, arbitrariness, or chance.

Each further discovery of law has increased the presumption that law is everywhere conformed to; and hence, among

others, has arisen the belief in the Homœopathic law of the similars—a law which is now considered universal in its application to the cure of disease. Besides its abstract parentage in the grand general conception which science has generated of the universality of law, this principle has a concrete parentage of the highest kind. Based, as it is, on law, it may claim for its remote progenitor the Great Master Creator who established all law; but the man who gave it its present shape, by promulgating the doctrine that like cures like, was the most diligent, careful and original observer of modern times in this department of knowledge. And the world has not seen a more learned doctor than the man Hahnemann, who, setting out with this conception, was able by his subsequent labors and provings to demonstrate the truth of the law. Thus, even were there but little direct evidence assignable, yet coming from such a source, the probability of its truth would be strong, and its derivation, with the low and degraded state of the antagonistic doctrine of cure, would, together, form a weighty reason for accepting and trying it; but the direct evidence we possess of the truth of this law and of its universal application to the cure of disease, will leave, at the present day, no doubt in the mind of any candid enquirer.

Leaving the consideration of the medical evidence to the learned and celebrated Professor who so ably fills this chair, I will endeavor to show, if possible, that the law of the similars is in harmony with the laws of development, evolution, and progress exhibited in organic bodies. I think it was Goethe who expressed, in the early part of the present century, the formula that evolution and progress is always from the homogeneous to the heterogeneous from the simple to the complex. We shall see this around us. If we look at the lowest form of animal life, the rhizopoda, we shall find it, as described by Professor Beale, to be a little particle of homogeneous jelly, changing itself into a greater variety of forms than the fabled Proteus, laying hold of its food without members, swallowing it without a mouth, digesting it

without a stomach, appropriating its nutritive material without absorbent vessels or a circulating system, moving from place to place without muscles, feeling, if it has power to do so, without nerves, propagating itself without any generative apparatus, and in some instances clothing or defending itself with shelly coverings of a symmetry and complexity greater than are found in other testaceous animals. Next in the scale, in the alcyonidæ, we have superadded canals running through the gelatinous mass with a number of digestive sacs with mouths and tentacles. Here we find a partial segregation into individualities. From this stage onwards we have the coralidæ in which the polyp-bearing mass surrounds a calcareous axis; then the tubiporidæ in which the polyps, no longer united, inhabit separate cells, seated in a calcareous framework. After complete separateness of organisms has been arrived at, the law of development is still to be seen endlessly engaged in further improvements of structure. By greater individuality of parts or organs, are all animals of high endowments distinguished from lower ones. We may notice this in the successive phases of development in the nervous system. In the acrita the nervous matter is supposed to be diffused in a molecular form or condition through the body. In the nemostoneura the first step is seen of the individuation of the nervous system, for the nervous matter is to be distinctly seen in filaments. In the homogangliata the nervous matter is still further concentrated into a number of small masses—ganglia.

In the heterogangliata some of these masses are collected into larger ones. And finally in the vertebrata the greater part of the nervous centres unite to form a brain; and with the rest of the body, there has simultaneously been going on the same process of individuation into separate systems of organ and function—physiological division of labor in fact. The law of development in animal life, and also in the vegetable kingdom, is, from the simple to the complex, seen in the growth of the germinal matter or protoplasmic substance into the complex being man. In other words from

the homogeneous to the heterogeneous, or, again, in the words of Coleridge: "By life," he says "I mean everywhere the true idea of life, or that most general form under which life manifests itself to us, which includes all other forms." This I have stated to be the tendency to individuation, and the degrees or intensities of life to consist in the progressive realizations of this tendency.

Organically, then, man springs from a germ; from the germinal matter is formed the cell; these, by the mode of fissiparous generation form themselves into masses; these give origin to a peripheral layer of cells, slightly differing from the rest which they include or surround. This layer of cells subsequently divides into two; the inner layer, lying in contact with the included yelk, being called the mucous layer; and the outer, exposed to surrounding agencies, being called the serous layer; or in the words of Professor Huxley when describing the hydrozoa, "the endoderm and the ectoderm." Out of the one arise the organs by which food is prepared and absorbed, oxygen imbibed, and the blood purified, while from the other arise the muscular, osseous and nervous systems by whose combined actions the movements of the body are effected. Hence we are justified in considering the human body as a republic of monads, each with independent powers of life, growth and reproduction; each of which unites with others to perform some function necessary to itself, and to all the rest; and each of which absorbs its nutriment from the blood.

Another law of development is that every active force produces more than one change. Every active cause produces more than one effect. A few illustrations will point the meaning of this law. Take the case of fire. The proximate cause and immediate effect are well known, but besides these, there are the facts of numerous atmospheric currents moving thousands of cubic feet of air. Then the heat diffused causes contraction and expansions of all bodies within its range. Then there is a continued formation of carbonic acid and water, in itself a result more complex than the extraneous

heat which caused it. The carbonic acid given off will perhaps combine with some chemical base, or give up its carbon to the leaf of a plant. Again, every person warmed by the heat of it will be affected in their respiration and waste of tissue, and these results, again, must have various secondary results. In short, should we trace to their extreme ramifications, all the forces disengaged or set in motion, mechanical thermal, chemical and electric, and accurately determine the evaporation caused, the gases generated, the light evolved and the heat radiated, we shall have a great labor before us. All these forces are set in motion by an incandescent particle of matter applied to the fire.

Let us briefly trace the action of this law upon an adult organism. An alarming sound or sight, besides the impression on the organs of sense and the nerves, may produce a shout or scream, a distortion of the facial muscles, a trembling, a burst of perspiration, an excited action of the heart, a rush of blood to the brain, followed possibly by arrest of the heart's action and by syncope—in fact, a long train of various and complicated symptoms may arise. Similarly, in cases of disease, an infinitesimally minute portion of the virus of the small pox introduced into the system, will produce in the first stage rigors, heat of skin, accelerated pulse, furred tongue, thirst, vomiting, headache, pains in the dorsal vertebræ, muscular debility, convulsions, delirium; in the second stage, the eruption, itching, tingling, sore throat, swollen fauces, salivation, cough, dyspnœa; and lastly, œdema, pneumonia, pleurisy, diarrhea, meningitis, ophthalmia, erysipelas, &c.

After these considerations I think that the analogy of the law of the similars to the usual operations of nature will be forced upon our minds. If every highly complicated organism is reducible to the element of a protoplasmic germinal particle, and if every active force is the cause of many effects and not of one only, we shall be at no loss to account for the efficiency of the single dose of the right remedy, in the cure of a long train of morbid symptoms. It

extends its operation from the simple to the complex. Beginning as an homogeneous substance, it becomes heterogeneous in its effects, and acting by an analogous law to that of development, it pervades the whole human economy. Again, the application of this law leads to the individuation of disease. Homœopathy does not treat diseases by names or nosological classification, but by the phenomena exhibited in each individual case, and in this is far superior to any other method of cure. This tendency to individuation is the law of organic life, and the extension of the doctrine to the treatment of disease is but a corollary from the premises.

As to the modus operandi of the Homœopathic dose, I submit that a correct definition may possibly be arrived at, by attributing it primarily to the reflex action of the spinal marrow with its sentient and motor nerves. It is in a similar way that the irritation of the mammary organs may produce abortion, and the fact of this irritation producing hemorrhage from the uterus was known twenty-five hundred years ago to Hippocrates. This action of the mammæ upon the uterus has been excited by drawing the breasts artificially, as well as by the suckling of the infant. I am of opinion, then, that the primary action of the Homœopathic dose is due to the irritation of the inorganic or other substance upon the excitor nerves, and reflected through the spinal marrow upon the diseased organ or viscera. The changes made in the organism by the secondary action of the medicine may, I think, be ascribed to the influence of minute alterations in the blood, determining local alterations of nutrition.

Now, gentlemen, do not think that the study of Homœopathy is an easy matter. To be a good and successful physician, you require to know all that the Allopathic practitioner acquires, and a great deal more besides. Anatomy, physiology, pathology, chemistry, botany and hygiene, are common to both schools; but we have this addition to our studies, that we have a law of universal applicability for the use of drugs and medicines, we have a better and more exact knowledge of all and each of these, and we know the relation

between the group of symptoms of any disease, and the corresponding group of symptoms of the medicine homœopathic to the disease. But to learn this knowledge, and apply it at the bedside of the patient, is by no means an easy matter; but with untiring industry and perseverance I have no doubt you will succeed. But, above all things, I wish to inculcate fidelity to conscience. This is an essential precept of our practice. No hesitation, no paltering about the probable results to ourselves, but an implicit obedience to that law which we know to be true, and if true, then of God. "Veritas a quocunque dicĭtur, à Deo est." We are not to follow the example of those who disregard the precision of the law and seek to direct themselves. We are not to be guilty of the practical atheism of those who, seeing no guidance or law in the practice of medicine but their own limited understandings, endeavor themselves to play the God and decide what will be good and what bad in the treatment of disease. But, on the contrary, we must search out with a genuine humility the best modes of applying the law ordained for us, and do so unfalteringly, without speculating as to consequences; and then, where there is perfect sincerity and competent knowledge—when, in the words of your own Emerson, "Each man is true to his own soul, and strives to realize the highest rectitude, then will all things prosper with you."